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*An Essay on Western Civilization in its Economic Aspects (Ancient Times).* By W. CUNNINGHAM, D.D., LL.D., Lecturer of Trinity College, Cambridge. [Cambridge Historical Series.] (Cambridge: University Press. 1898. Pp. xii, 220.)

THIS essay is an interesting and useful attempt to "bring out the main economic features in the growth and diffusion of the civilized life in Western Europe, to which so many peoples and countries have contributed." It is an analysis of that heritage of industrial skill and commercial enterprise which the English nation now enjoys, and is diffusing over the East. Considering the immense difficulties of the task, it has been well performed. Some of these difficulties are clearly specified by the author, some not mentioned are clearly felt by him, and some, perhaps not properly realized by him, become obvious to the reader. The social and economic sides of ancient life among the peoples contributing to Western civilization were never properly described by the writers whom we must now use as sources of information, and all the wealth of monuments rendered accessible by archaeological discovery throws but an imperfect light upon the subject. Again, many modern economical and social relations did not exist at all in ancient life. They are the outcome, not of embryo devices and institutions of a more primitive society, but of inventions made outright by totally different forms of society. It is often impossible to determine where evolution set in and where invention or creation was exercised. Competition, credit, organization, labor, machinery, co-operation, combination, all mighty elements in modern economical questions, played no large rôle in ancient life. The economics of ancient life, even under imperial systems, seem therefore barren of great freely-moving forces. Absolutism on the one hand, and slavery on the other, together with the difficulties of transportation and international intercourse, and limited economical institutions, imposed upon them local characteristics. Still again, the energies of ancient life were absorbed by politics rather than by economics—the energies, that is, of the free class. It is only with the advent of free industrialism that economical relations assume a magnitude which compels typical development and evolution. Political systems and institutions enveloped and hampered economical institutions. It is, therefore, very difficult to study ancient economics apart from ancient politics, ancient commerce apart from ancient war.

The difficulties of the task being so great, it is not strange that the author's object is not fully attained. Still, it is sufficiently attained to justify the attempt. Occasionally, the narrower purpose of the book seems to merge into a larger one, that of determining the quota which each great people of the past has supplied to Western civilization in general. At such times the reader is obliged to consider what he reads a useless iteration of what has been as well said elsewhere, in the larger political histories of ancient peoples. It is easier, however, for the general historian to add his chapters of economic history to his political out-

line, than for the special historian of economics to exclude the larger political issues from his more restricted field.

Book I. gives a survey, in three chapters, of the economical conditions which prevailed in Egypt, Judaea, and Phoenicia. Egypt is a lone example of a "self-sufficing" country, developed from a simple grazing and herding land, by a vast artificial agricultural system favored by extraordinary natural advantages, into a densely peopled territory, capable of supporting its own inhabitants and all the visitors attracted to it, and of erecting for its rulers the most imperishable monuments of their wealth and power. The lack of sea-power, however, and the absence of centrifugal tendencies, made her almost wholly receptive. Her arts and learning were disseminated by her guests, and not by her own people. "Control of the food-supply was the basis of the Pharaohs' power," but that power could only conquer and exact tribute outside the Nile valley. It could not spread Egyptian civilization.

The empire of Solomon, in Palestine, formed a race which, in its dispersion, has rigidly preserved its habits and character. "They have not devoted themselves to industrial employment, nor shewn the enterprise which opens new markets or pushes fresh lines of discovery, but they have patiently pursued the humbler courses of commercial activity, as retailers and brokers." All this people ever had they took from successful neighbors. Their country was fruitful, intersected by caravan routes which made the products of other countries available through trade, and occupied by a conquered slave class which rendered manual and industrial labor unnecessary on the part of the Israelite.

The Phoenicians developed a "carrying trade between distant countries, but they were also engaged actively in importing materials and exporting manufactures for themselves." Their policy of exhausting their sources of supply, instead of enriching them, after the manner of modern English commerce, made their mission, on the whole, a cruel one. Their great industrial civilization fell, because it depended on the products of other lands for its maintenance.

Thus the salient economic traits of each of these three peoples are traced with a bold hand. The debt of Greece to Assyria and Persia might also have been distinguished. Indeed the omission of these peoples in favor of the Hebrews is a feature of the book which it is hard to justify.

Books II. and III. deal with the more familiar fields of Greek and Roman life. The Greek was eager "in the development of commerce and the race for wealth, but treated material prosperity as a means to an end—an opportunity for the maintenance of political and intellectual life." The great influence of money economy on Greek civilization is ably and strikingly developed. The permanence of the type of city organization presented by Athens is emphasized. Athens furnishes precedents in municipal, and also in national finance. Her great economic error, that of devoting public wealth to vast unproductive public works, is often forgotten in the charm exercised by her art and literature. The

city, as "a centre of noble political and active economic life," was a Greek creation. Greek experiments in organizing government over large areas were only partially successful. But they paved the way for the greater and more permanent success of the Romans. Then came the Christian Church, the era of discovery and the age of invention, with modifications of old institutions and creation of new ones. But "the main questions of household economy, of city economy and of national economy, which recur again and again, all came within the cognizance of the Greeks."

Phoenicians and Carthaginians attempted to "pursue an exclusive commerce, and to keep all rivals out of the field." Hellenic freedom of commerce triumphed against the Phoenician directly, and through Rome against the Carthaginian. The Roman extended the successful application of Hellenic economics over the world. Constantinople stored up the best attainments of Hellenic principles under Roman application, till the modern nations were ready to receive them.

B. PERRIN.

*Pausanias's Description of Greece.* Translated, with a Commentary, by J. G. FRAZER, M.A., LL.D., Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. (London and New York: The Macmillan Co. 1898. Six vols, pp. xcvi, 616, 582, 652, 447, 638, 199.)

It is not every guide-book that appeals to the historical reviewer, nor is it every Sentimental Journey that justifies translation and commentary to the extent of six bulky volumes. But the *Periegesis* of Pausanias, in whichever quality we consider it, does both. In characterizing it as "a plain, unvarnished account by an eye-witness of the state of Greece in the second century of our era," Mr. Frazer tells but half the truth. It is all that and much more. Between the lines of the old traveller's note-book and in his wide-ranging digressions we read the whole story of the mightier Hellas which had long since passed away.

It must have been near the middle of the second century when the Lydian Greek, reared in the shadow of Mt. Sipylus and steeped in the myths and memories of his race, set his face toward the fatherland across the Aegean. Already well travelled in the East, he proposed now "to describe the whole of Greece" (or rather "all things Greek")—evidently intending to confine his view to the mainland, as he passes in silence the storied isles of the Aegean to jot down his first note at Sunium. Reaching Athens when Herodes Atticus was in the midst of his munificent activity (the Odeion was not yet built), he took up the great task which was to occupy him for many years. In the *Attica*, which appears to have been written and published before the rest, he is feeling his way and working out his method; then with a surer step he makes the round of the Peloponnese and returns to central Greece, where his further survey is confined to Boeotia and Phocis. Northern Greece is not included in the *Description* though the author had visited Thermopylae, whose hot springs he pronounces "the bluest water that he